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ABSTRACT

Four conference papers focus on aspects of administration in special education (SE) for handicapped children. Contrasted are formal with informal organizational structure, and examined are communication lines in a special education division to point out human divergence from formal bureaucratic to actual structure, and to show how a formal change in structuring is meaningless when the actual structure is not changed (decentralization is given as an example). Parents as potential changers of children's behaviors is the theme of a paper in which the author offers a model for parental involvement through a workshop in behavioral management. In another paper, two procedures, process and product evaluation, used in evaluating exceptional children's developmental education programs, are discussed in terms of a computerized information system, formulation of evaluation design, measurement, data collecting, data analysis, and report writing. The final paper reports future trends in special education, assessed through the Council for Exceptional Children's member survey to members, who predict such major SE changes as increased integration, decategorization, individualized instruction, teacher education reform, and new programs for severely handicapped children; also noted is the survey's indication of a transition period, furing which SE teachers and administrators will need to reassess their roles, and the field will need to concentrate on financing and leadership. (MC)

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The Impact of Formal and Informal Organizational Structure on the Implementation of Special Education Services in the Public Schools

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America relies on organizations to give structure to many fundamental aspects of our complex and heterogeneous society. We are born in organizations, educated by organizations, and many of us spend the major portion of our lives working for organizations. Rationality, effectiveness, and efficiency hold high moral values for our society, and we depend largely on organizations as the most rational and efficient form of social grouping known to provide the formal structure for the realization of our values. The organization creates a powerful social tool by coordinating a large number of human actions. It combines personnel with its other resources, interweaves leaders, experts, workers, productive processes and raw materials. At the same time the organization evaluates its performance and attempts to adapt or adjust itself accordingly to achieve or meet its goals. (Etzioni 1964)

Formal organizations exist which are established for the explicit purpose of achieving certain goals. The term formal has been applied to set them off from informal organizations or groupings which are goal oriented but not formally organized such as work groups in factories, offices, and groups of interacting influential individuals in the community

power structure. With the advent of the Human Relations School and the Hawthorne Studies, the relationship between formal and informal aspects of an organization became a legitimate concern and led to alternative views of understanding rationality, effectiveness and efficiency in organizations.

The formal organizational structure has been viewed as the design for organizing an institution or a static depiction of dynamic processes. (Smith 1964). For example, one type of formal organization, a school system, continues to function after particular groups or individual teachers have terminated -- it does not rely on specific individuals for its existence as a formal organization. (Morphet, Reller, Johns 1959). Implicit in the organizational design are factors of longevity, continuity and thus stability.

The informal organizational structure has been considered to consist of day to day operations of duties, responsibilities, power and authority as these are not formally provided for. (Smith 1964). Informal structures are seen as having a shorter life span as their purposes are directed toward satisfying the personal and changing needs of their participants.

Since the structure of the informal organization is closely tied to specific individuals or groups of individuals, its design may not be as stable, long lasting or as continuous as that of the formal structure. For example, once the needs of a group are met or the individuals leave the organization, the purpose of the informal structure becomes extinct. (Morphet, Reller, Johns 1959).

Getzels as well as others point out the dichotomous almost oppositional nature of the informal and formal organizational structures; and yet the closeness of fit between the two has been considered by some to be a measure of the organization's effectiveness and efficiency. For example, Griffitys, Clark, Wynn and Iannocone (1962) suggest that the effectiveness of the formal organizational pattern can be measured by determining how closely its design predicts adaptations deemed necessary in day to day operations in order to achieve both individual and institutional purposes. Likert discusses a system in which the formal and informal structures are "often one and the same and thus all social forces support efforts to achieve organizational goals."

It is important to note that historically the concept of the informal organization developed as a reaction to the Scientific Management School wherein workers were motivated by economic rewards, organizations were characterized by clearly defined divisions of labor with highly specialized personnel, and by a distinct hierarchy of authority. A specific individual was not considered important enough to affect the job definition, rather the job existed and any qualified individual could carry it out in exactly the prescribed manner. In this classical approach no conflict was seen between man and the organization, between the idiographic and nomethetic dimensions. (Etzioni 1964). Rationality dictated that what was good for management was good for workers because hard and efficient labor paid off for both groups by increasing the effectiveness of the organization.

The Human Relations School contrasted with the Scientific Management School by attempting to describe what organizational life was really like -- distinct from any blueprint. It emphasized the emotional, unplanned non-rational, individualistic elements in organizational behavior. The Human Relations School discussed the significance of friendships, social

groupings of workers and illustrated the importance of leadership in organization and of emotional communication and participation. It also pointed out the important non-economical, social and cultural needs of workers and their place in increasing worker satisfaction and productivity.

There is a progression from the abstract classical, formal, or ideal organizational structure through the Human Relations approach which conceived of the informal as a shadow of the formal structure, while being woven into the interstices of the formal, to the approach which studies the real structure, or the way people actually interact and make organizations function. The formal or ideal is built around the notion of rationality while the Real structure is not so constructed. The way people operate within an organization is conditioned by a whole range of human tendencies, motivations and goals which do not necessarily stem from a commitment to rational efficiency. This is not to refute the fact that organizations may be established in terms of a rational organizational plan.

At the heart of both the formal and actual/real structures is the communication network. The formal structure is set up to enhance information

flow from the top to bottom or horizontally depending on the organizational form, while the actual structure develops as a means of meeting the needs or demands of personnel within the organization as they interact and make the organization function.

An example of the effects of an actual structure on the formal is observed in the New York City School System. Here decentralization was thought to be one answer to large city school system problems and a formal type of organizational structure incorporating a decentralized administrative hierarchy was proposed. Information related to operational procedures and expectations of and for the new decentralized structure was nil. Personnel were left to deal with the ambiguity of the new structure while carrying out their primary missions as previously learned. Rogers (1968) describes a situation in which a plan was initially formulated and sent as a directive to the New York City field superintendents and it was then interpreted by principals in a variety of ways depending upon the idiocracies of the principals and his school. Often the individual in authority implements the directive in light of his own "superior knowledge" of local conditions

thus creating a school specific or "Real" organizational structure. One concludes that analysis of the formal organization structure of the New York City School system would not have helped to predict the way decisions were ultimately implemented.

Smith (1964) gives further insight into the discrepancies between an ideal and real structure by using the area of curriculum instruction in secondary schools as an example. He first determined whether or not there was an informal structure by analyzing the decision-making and communication network related to curriculum instruction. He delineated in detail the actual real organizational structure for curriculum instruction apart from the formal or ideal. Smith interviewed superintendents of six secondary schools asking them to name the position in their school systems whose holders were directly involved in decisions made about secondary curriculum. In this way he obtained a verbal organizational chart indicating positions involved in making decisions relating to curriculum development.

Smith also investigated the relationships which existed among the positions by having the individuals report who gave directives and/or

offered advice to whom concerning decisions on curriculum. In this way he was able to obtain information concerning the interrelationships of all those named and to more ably determine who was understood by the superintendents, curriculum director, principals, assistant principals, and teachers as actually having the most to do with decisions of this kind. Smith developed a basis for ranking all positions in the actual organizational structure. This ranking was not consistent with the formal organizational chart but in terms of decisions made about curriculum instruction in a given high school, this structure constituted the Real organization for curriculum matters.

Carol Taylor (1970) cites another example of the formal versus real. Some years ago in Britain, personnel of the English postal system were unable to strike in the usual manner because they were government employees and so they abandoned their actual system of operations and began functioning according to the formal rules and regulations. Everyone worked as long and as hard as usual but all post office employees were meticulous about doing everything through formal channels and according to officially prescribed procedures. Within two weeks the organization was unable to accept mail.

There was no more room in the post office buildings, and it was reported in the press that it was no longer possible to insert postcards into English mailboxes. Obviously, aspects of the Real system which had been routinized over time were stable and continuous and the communication network, decision-making processes operationally efficient to the extent that the Real organizational structure rather than the Formal kept the mails going.

The real organizational structure of the English Postal System and Smith's organizational structure of the curriculum instructional unit are not informal structures in the sense described by the Human Relations School and certainly were not the (organizational) structures formalized by organization. Thus, the "Real" organizational structure represents a conscious attempt by organization personnel, individually and in groups to remove the ambiguity from the Formal organizational structure in order to more optimally implement the goals of the organization while meeting the individual needs of organizational employees. It is a structure which has stability and is not totally dependent upon specific individuals or personalities for its existence.

The use of this approach distinguishing between the Formal and the Real organizational structures, will be used in this section to analyze the actual operational structure of the special education section of a public school district. As with many large school districts, Urbanville (a pseudonym) turned to decentralization as a means of solving some of the problems encountered in the growing educational system. Urbanville ISD was divided into three geographical areas and the formal organizational chart was revised to reflect this decentralization. Figure 2 depicts the Formal organizational structure of the decentralized plan as it affected the special education segment of the school system. A university based research team was asked to carry out a needs survey and to respond to the new organizational structure in relation to the needs identified by the survey. The research team developed a questionnaire which was sent to the Deputy Superintendents, Director of Special Education, Director of Guidance and Counseling, Special Education Coordinators, Coordinators of Guidance and Counseling, and Principals in each of the three districts. The responses to this questionnaire form the basis for the following analysis of the real

organizational structure as it affected the special education component.

The research team analyzed the subjects understandings of the formal decentralized organization. Each subject was asked to draw an organizational chart showing both line and staff relationships of all specified personnel. The charts drawn with three exceptions differed markedly from that of the actual Urbanville Formal organizational chart. For example some people indicated that the Deputy Superintendent and Assistant Superintendent for Instruction were on the same level (horizontally) with neither staff nor line relationships between them and having a combination of line and staff relationships with specialists, principals and teachers. Others showed the Deputy Superintendent having line relationships with the principals and Director of Special Education placing these two positions on the same horizontal level. Moreover, as one moved down the hierarchical ladder of line relationships the amount of agreement with the formal organizational chart decreased. More specifically one notes that 50 percent of the principals viewed the Director of Special Education as having a line relationship with the special education personnel -- teachers or coordinators --

as did 66 percent of the area special education coordinators when in fact the Director of Special Education formally held a staff relationship to these personnel. Data related to job descriptions and to communication patterns of the personnel were analyzed and confirmed the fact that a discrepancy existed between the formal structure and the real and functioning organizational structure in Urbanville.

As an example of this discrepancy, consider the data related to the role position and communication patterns of the Director of Special Education as established by the formal organizational structure and as actually practiced via the Real organizational structure. In response to the task of illustrating the individual's perception of the Formal organization, the Director of Special Education depicted his position as having a line relationship with Special Education Coordinators, Material and other Specialists, and a staff relationship to special and regular teachers, building principals and Urbanville Appraisal Personnel. The formal organizational chart showed the Director to have a line relationship only with the Assistant Superintentent of Instruction and only a staff relationship

to the special education coordinators with no staff or line relationship to the others mentioned. The Director's perceived organizational structure is supported by analysis of his communication patterns within the organization. Thus, the discrepancy between the formal and real role relationships is operationalized through the communication network. Although the Director's role is clearly administrative (he is formally within the domain of the central office with only supportive influence over the special education coordinators) most of his communications were reported to be with individuals occupying field based positions. Data are not available at this time concerning the types of communication involved, such as Smith's data regarding advisory and directive communication.

It will be noted in figure 1 that the Director of Special Education occupied the largest majority of his time dealing with individuals outside his formally prescribed area of concern. He reported that he communicated twice as frequently with school principals as with Special Education Coordinators (his designated communication entry into the schools) and 50 percent more frequently with special education teachers. The relatively

large number of contacts with teachers, aides, parents, and media specialists indicates that the Director of Special Education position is actually being used to fulfill consultative or supportive functions to role positions dealing directly with children. It would appear that the Director of Special Education is functionally extending his span of control in the operation of the special education system.

Additional analysis demonstrates that the Director communicates as frequently with the Deputy Superintendents with whom he has neither a staff nor line relationship, either in the formal or his depiction of the real organizational format as he does with the special education coordinators with whom he has a staff relationship in the formal and a line relationship in his perceived structure. Moreover, (as depicted in figure 1 by the numbers in parentheses which show rank order of support received by the Director from each of the other positions) analyzing the rankings for support the Director indicates that the Deputy Superintendents are the most supportive of him. This achieves additional significance when one analyzes figure 3 which is an illustration of the Director's interpretation of the organizational chart

for the special education delivery of services. It will be noted that the Director does not indicate either a staff or a lined relationship with a deputy superintendent but does with a number of others throughout the district. (It is assumed that the staff relationships designated by the Director effectively illustrate communication patterns.) Contacts between the deputy superintendents and the Director total four per week as opposed to his perceived twelve contacts with principals per week. Only principals from two of the three geographical districts reported any contacts with the Director. This analysis indicates that perceptions of contacts by the principals and the Director differ and becomes particularly significant when considering the rank order of support of the other role as perceived by the Director of Developmental Services and the principals.

The data related to other questions in the Urbanville study lend support to the theory of a real structure which differs from the formal. These data reflect the subjects' responses concerning changes in the delivery of special education services resulting from the decentralization change in the formal structure. If the Real structure is represented by

the Director of Special Education's responses indicating that he made the decisions and influenced their implementation through his line relationship to the coordinators of special education and his relationships with teachers and principals, the change to a decentralized formal structure did not affect the actual/Real organizational structure and its operation as was intended. As stated above communication is the functional basis for both organizational structures, and was a central theme in the responses to both questions. Decentralization was not seen as producing either a more efficient communication system nor a very different one. Decentralization per se did not seem to "facilitate" communication district wide or within areas.

Having reviewed the literature and discussed the analysis of several sources of data, it has become apparent that the amount of information needed to describe the Real organizational structure of a complex institution is enormous. Necessary information would include how the institution formally organized each of its components to function; how each component did or did not do whatever it was formally supposed to do; what the people who worked

in the various components actually do and what they say they do; also information about each component's functional relationship with other component parts of the institution.

Taylor found that personnel in each organizational component had organized themselves to function in ways that were different from those suggested by the organizational chart. Smith (1964) and Rogers (1968) also noted this realignment of Real and formal structures as did analysis of the Urbanville data. Taylor found that individuals' descriptions of what they did and what their departments did was contradictory to the observed behavior. These contradictions are not mentioned by Smith but were found in the Urbanville data when comparing job descriptions to perceptions of the organizational chart and the communication network.

In bureacratic organizational structures, decision making is from the top down with the only decision allowed at the lowest level being the decision to quit. Cooperative action about decisions made at higher levels in the hierarchy is seen as a threat to the bureacratic decision-making system. The problems which might be solved by cooperative action at

functional levels are supposed to be formally resolved at an appropriate superior level -- "by going through the channels."

The human employee apparently finds it extremely difficult to function according to a formalized system of depersonalized logic and a bureacratic system characteristically produces informal action which can result in the form of a different organizational system. This actual/Real structure often leads those at the middle level to by-pass formally correct communication channels in order to work cooperatively to prevent the system from imposing what they consider to be unreasonable decisions. Since modern day employees have most of their basic needs easily satisfied with minimal job effort, they seek to fulfill their higher level need for self actualization through their occupation. In order for special education personnel to fully self actualize within school bureacracies, individuals begin to disregard formal organizational structure with seemingly ambiguous rationales and develop Real structures consistent with their interpretation of what is needed and how it should be obtained. These determinations are individual and while groups of individuals may have similar program goal aspirations, they perceive

their importance to the successful attainment of these goals and the role of others in this goal attainment idiosyncratically. Thus, the Real organizational structure is composed of numerous individualistic patterns combined conceptually into an informal but Real description of personnally determined role relationships.

A tug-of-war between people and system takes place at all but the highest levels in the bureacratic public school system. At the lowest levels it produces an individualistic and interactive phenomenon that gradually changes the actual organizational form of large-scale institutions.

Whether or not the actual structure closely resembles the formal or not is a theoretical matter. However, when evaluating efficiency of an organization's structure for carrying out directives and implementing changes, one must understand the actual structure, for without that knowledge, one is dealing in abstractions and fantasies which are far from the educational realities of today.

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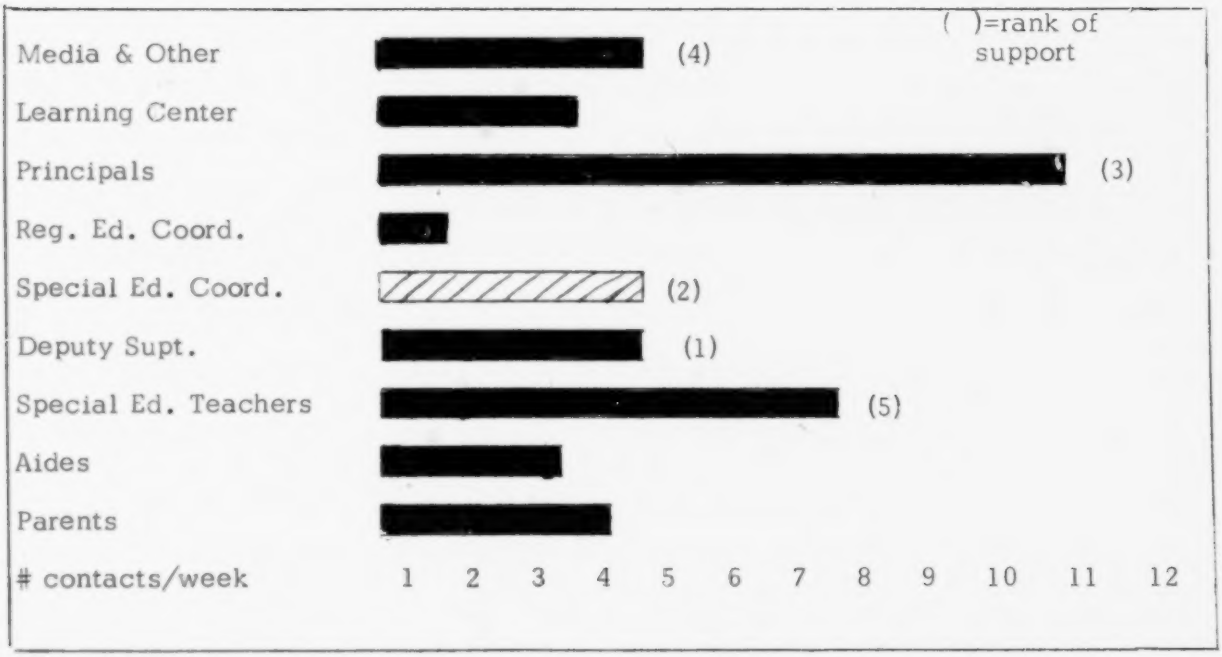
Director of Special Education



Principal Rankings and Communication Patterns

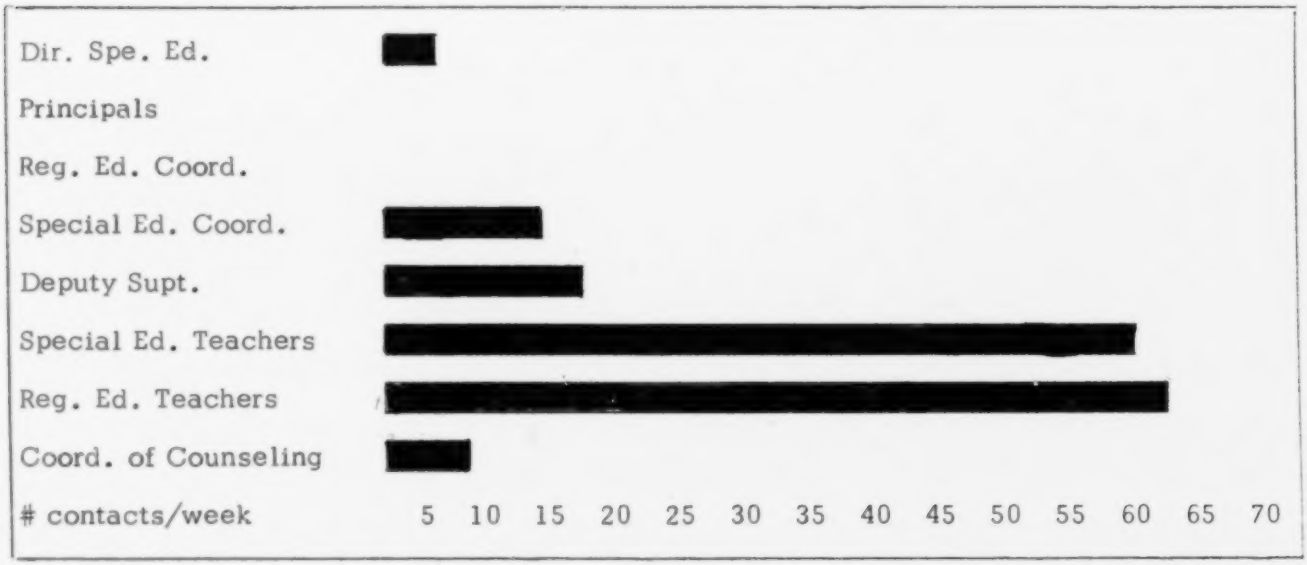


Figure I

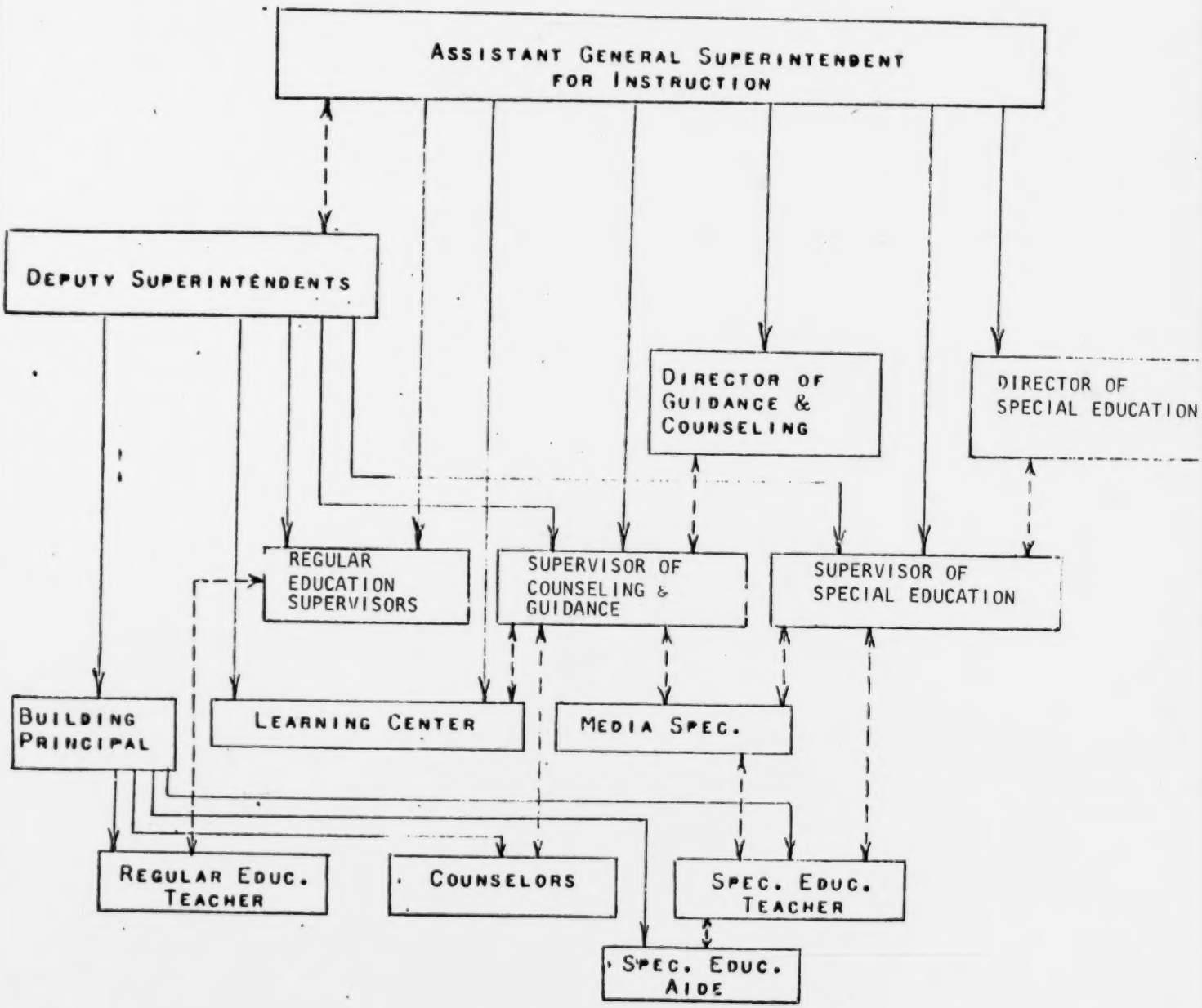

ASSISTANT GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT FOR INSTRUCTION
DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENTS
DIRECTOR OF GUIDANCE & COUNSELING
DIRECTOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION
REGULAR EDUCATION SUPERVISORS
SUPERVISOR OF COUNSELING & GUIDANCE
SUPERVISOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION
BUILDING PRINCIPAL
LEARNING CENTER
MEDIA SPEC.
REGULAR EDUC. TEACHER
COUNSELORS
SPEC. EDUC. TEACHER
SPEC. EDUC. AIDE

Figure 2

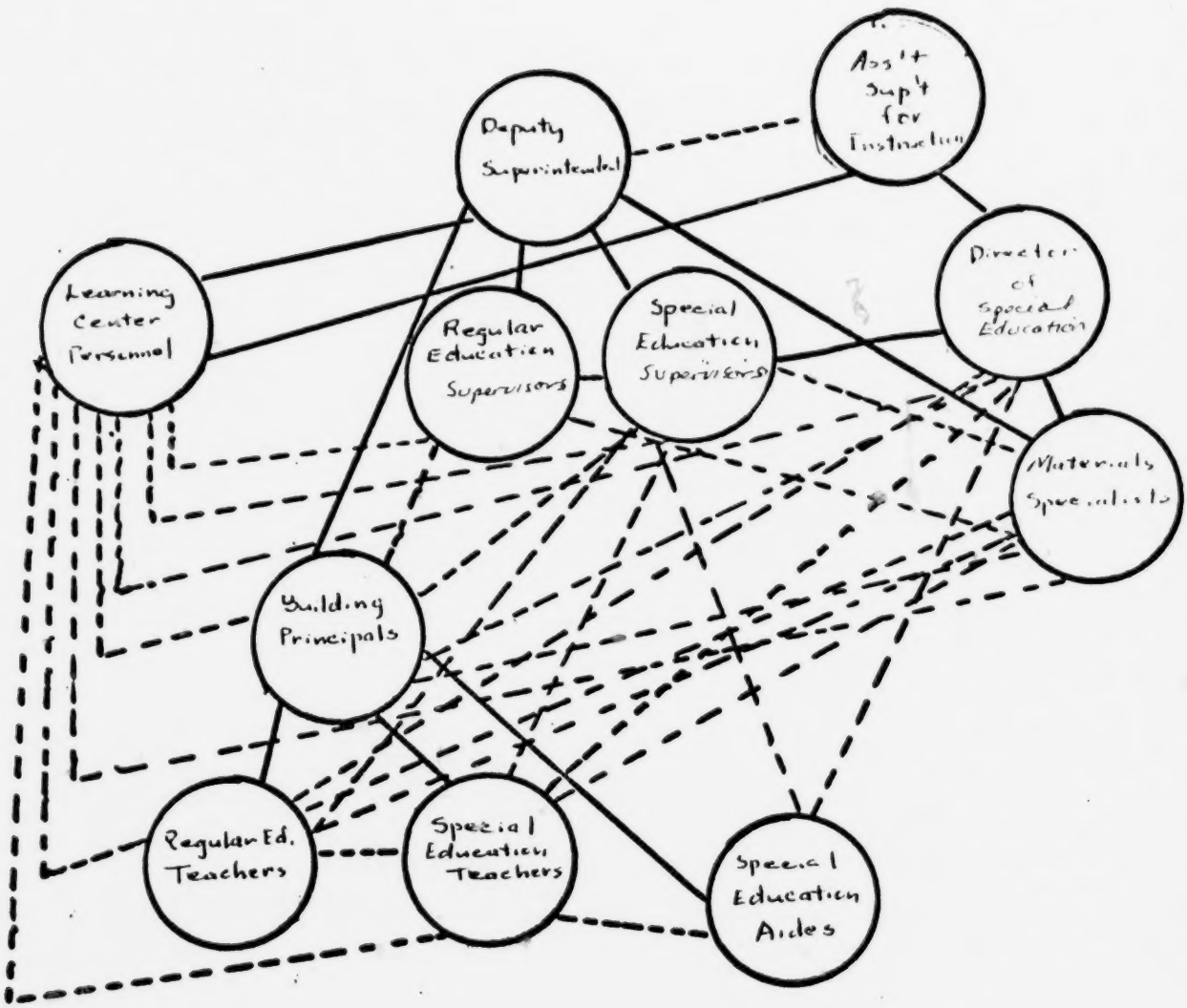

Asst Supt for Instruction
Deputy Superintendent
Learning Center Personnel
Regular Education Supervisors
Special Education Supervisors
Director of Special Education
Materials Specialists
Building Principals
Regular Ed. Teachers
Special Education Teachers
Special Education Aides

Figure 3

PARENTS: HOW AND WHEN TO INVOLVE THEM

Richard L. McDowell, Ed.D.
University of New Mexico
CEC, Dallas, Texas, 1973

The relationship between Special Education and parents of handicapped children has been a strained arrangement at best. For too long parents were not considered to be a contributing factor as far as special educators and other specialists were concerned. In fact, until recently the parent was considered a hinderance to the rehabilitative process. This was true particularly in the case of parents of emotionally disturbed children where many times the situation was viewed as being the result of one or both of the parents personal problems. In that case action or intervention took the form of therapy for the parent.

This strained relationship is quite evident today with the number of law suits pertaining to the rights of handicapped children and their families. Several of the recent key decisions by the courts have revolved around the question of prior parental approval regarding the evaluation of children with suspected handicaps and the placement of children in self-contained special education classrooms.

There has been one particularly bright spot where parents have taken responsible leadership roles in spite of the schools. This has been in the area of state and federal legislation supporting programs for handicapped children. In this area parents have been able to accomplish what the educator has not.

Historically, parent involvement has not been a sought after situation but rather has been a somewhat reluctantly acquired responsibility taken on

by professionals to deal primarily with the personal reactions with parents toward their handicapped children. There have been several studies (Bennett, 1957; Margolies and Wortis, 1966; and Illingworth, 1967) which have investigated these personal reactions. The common ingredient found in each of these studies has been a feeling of guilt on the part of one or both of the parents. It is usually the mother who suffers this guilt most (Illingworth, 1967). Several authors (Doll, 1953; Kanner, 1956; Barsch, 1961; Appell et al., 1964; and Margolies and Wortis, 1966) suggest that parent involvement at this point should take the form of counseling. Bennett (1957) suggests that too often the plight of the child is the only factor considered. Because of this, the parent is made to feel guilty if he or she should think of himself or herself first. He further states that the parent is human and has the same needs that others have and it is only natural that these needs be satisfied. Reid (1958) carries this concept a step further by suggesting ways to assist parents to cope with their situation. First, p.ovide education to parents concerning their child's handicap. Second, share the physical burden by helping the parent locate facilities and other resources for the child. Others (Doll, 1953; Kanner, 1956; and Barsch, 1961) support Reid on his contention that educating parents to their child's handicap will help to reduce feelings of anxiety and guilt in parents.

Several studies (Chapin, 1949; Kanner, 1956; Barsch, 1961; and Appell et al., 1964) indicate that group counseling is an effective process in terms of assisting parents to deal with their situations more realisticly. Chapin (1949) found that a parent may be reluctant to act upon advice received during an individual conference. However, they may be amenable to information obtained from a group situation where mutual problems are shared and discussed.

Shereshefsky (1963) suggests that since most problems develop in the whole environment of the entire family, it would be wise to treat the family

as a unit to change the environment and that the best place to do this is in the natural family environment. If then, we can train parents to modify and change their children's behavior this change can take place in the natural family environment as opposed to the sterile clinical setting.

Many studies (Russo, 1964; Straughan, 1964; Patterson, 1965; Wahler, et. al., 1965; Hawkins et.al., 1966; and Zeilberger et.al., 1968) have shown that parents can be effective in working with and modifying their children's behavior. Haring and Phillips (1962) have stressed the importance of parent involvement particularly in the group setting. In working with parents of emotionally disturbed children, their experience suggests that certain factors gained through such an interaction between home and school (parent-teacher) can be carried over into the parent's child-rearing practices. The groups were particularly helpful in the establishment of regularity in daily routine and in the establishment of routine consequences as a way of managing behavior. It is important that both parents be involved. The father does play a major role in the success or failure of good behavior management in the home (Autman, 1954). By teaching both parents techniques to assist in the management of their children's behavior, we assist them in becoming efficient and productive members of the team. They become involved in a positive way. Regardless of how much we attribute the difficulties of children to the home, we still have the child in school (Kirk, 1962). This necessitates cooperation between home and school.

It was with this thought in mind in 1968 that lead to a series of attempts to involve parents with educators. By involving both the parent and the teacher, it was postulated that support for learning could be gained which would result in positive growth in children (McDowell, 1968). Parents were brought together for a workshop in behavior management. It was thought that if both parents and teachers were trained to utilize a common technique such as behavior modification, they would have a common language in which to

communicate with each other about the child's learning and behavioral problems. Not only could they discuss the problem with each other but they could also plan alternatives for a possible solution. A study by Hahn (1972) has indicated that this type of parent involvement is successful in assisting children with learning and behavioral disorders. He reports significant growth in the area of reading when parents become involved.

Parent involvement should be gained as early as possible, particularly in the case of the exceptional child. The workshop model appears to be the most appropriate method to gain this involvement. The workshop allows the parent to participate and to carry out a worthwhile project while learning a management technique. Parents are more comfortable and don't feel they are being talked down to which has been the case all too often in the past.

The technique of behavior modification is taught to the parent by doing. The workshop consists of four meetings. Each meeting is concerned with a different or continuing phase of behavior management. The meetings are organized around a twelve to fifteen minute slide-tape presentation. This is followed with involvement activities and with an assignment to be completed before the next meeting.

Parents have demonstrated that they can become effective behavior changers. This has been demonstrated in workshops conducted by myself in Kansas and New Mexico, by Hahn (1972) in Johnson County, Kansas and by Mandelker (1973) in Las Cruces, New Mexico.

An outline of the entire workshop is available to you today in the form of a handout. At this point, I believe the easiest way to communicate this procedure to you is to actually conduct a parent group. I will now show you what is involved in such a parent workshop. I will present the first slide-tape presentation and then go through the activity worksheets.

Parents: How and When to Involve Them
Richard L. McDowell, Ed. D.
University of New Mexico
CEC, Dallas, Texas, 1973

Outline: Parent Workshop in Behavior Management

Parents can and do change children's behavior. When parents and teachers work together to teach a child a new or more appropriate behavior each profits; the parent, the teacher as well as the child. The Parent Workshops were developed to introduce parents to a systematic method of behavior management and to assist them in changing their child's behavior. As parents become involved with their child in a positive sense they can become an effective part of a united effort with the teacher to teach the child positive alternatives in behavior.

The Parent Workshop in "Behavior Management" is composed of four (4) separate meetings, each approximately one hour and thirty minutes in length. A starting and ending time should be established for each of the four meetings. This consistancy allows the parent to make arrangements for child care while they attend the meetings. The meetings should have a minimum of one week between each and not over two weeks between each. The most efficient schedule seems to be one week between the first and second meetings and two weeks between the second and third meetings as well as between the third and forth meetings. This spacing allows the parents sufficient time to complete the assignments.

The size of the parent group should be between eight (8) to ten (10) couples. This size allows and supports good group interaction. It is recommended that whenever possible both mother and father attend the workshop. It is much easier to carry out the initial project if each parent supports the other during the process. Good support implies active involvement on both their parts.

The first three meetings are each organized around a short slide-tape presentation which introduces the concepts to be delt with in that meeting. This is followed by discussing the presented concepts and completing worksheets designed to simplify the process and to help the parents to start their assignment for the interval prior to the next. Through the worksheets each set of parents is assisted with their personal project so that they will know exactly what they are going to do between then and the next meeting. It is made clear to the parents from the first contact with them about the workshop that they will be expected to initiate and complete a behavior management project.

The following is an outline of each of the meetings and the content of each meeting:

Meeting # 1

A. Overview of the Workshop
B. Slide-Tape Presentation
    1. Introduction of behavior principles (behavior is learned)
    2. Selecting a target behavior (pinpointing a behavior)
    3. Recording behavior
    4. Baseline
C. Handout Workbook
D. Work through Assignment # 1 (Worksheets)
    1. List behaviors you would like to see changed in your child.
    2. Rank these behaviors in the order of their priority.
    3. Select the behavior you have given the highest priority and write it as a target behavior or pinpoint.

E. Assignment
   1. Record the selected behavior for one week without the child being aware that you are recording his behavior (Baseline).
   2. Make a list of activities, items or responses that your child responds favorably to.

Meeting # 2

A. Review briefly the outcome of the data collection for the previous week (Baseline).
B. Slide-Tape Presentation
   1. Review assignment
   2. Charting the behavior
   3. Consequences
   4. Arrangement of consequences (Contingencies).
C. Work through Assignment # 2 (Worksheet).
   1. Label your graph correctly
   2. Transfer the collected data from the Record Sheet to the Chart.
   3. Choose a consequence which you think will be effective in changing the selected behavior.
D. Assignment
   1. Choose a consequence which you think will be effective and apply it on a continuous basis for your child's behavior.

Meeting # 3

A. Slide-Tape Presentation
   1. Extension of Consequences
   2. Pairing and Schedules of Reinforcement
   3. General Behavior Management
      a. Rules should be Clear
      b. Rules should be Reasonable
      c. Rules should be Enforceable
B. Review and discuss individual projects (Allow the parents an opportunity to share their project with the others).
C. Support projects that are progressing appropriately.
D. Revise the projects that are having difficulty (reconsider the contingency and the consequence when the behavior is not changing).
E. Assignment
   1. Continue with the project and make adjustments where necessary.

Meeting # 4

This meeting is the "wrap-up" meeting. You may wish to include the teachers of the children whose parents have been attending the workshop. This is a good opportunity to allow the parent to share their project with the teacher. Many times this can establish a meaningful dialogue between parent and teacher which may lead to cooperative ventures between home and school. Schools will always gain from meaningful parent involvement. The major activity for the last meeting is to share projects and to discuss other ways the parents can begin to utilize the behavioral management techniques they have learned.

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EVALUATION OF DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMS FOR THE EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

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The purpose of this paper is to describe procedures for evaluating developmental programs for the education of exceptional children. A developmental program is defined as any innovative or experimental methodology, approach, instructional material, or combination of the foregoing designed to influence the education of exceptional children in a predictable fashion. The evaluation methodology described is also applicable to many traditional programs. The contents of this paper are based largely on the author's experience in evaluating programs in the Dallas Independent School District.

Evaluation is primarily a management information service and provides school decision-makers with information pertinent to questions of program adoption, revision, or rejection. The evaluation provides a basis for determining the degree to which the program attained its objectives and for identifying areas of strength and weakness within the program. The evaluation also identifies problem areas in the use of the program by the general staff. Such information is necessary for the optimum allocation of resources for program improvement. Evaluation should provide information that will enable management to respond adequately to questions of accountability.

The two kinds of evaluation of interest in this paper are what one might term process and product evaluation. Process evaluation considers the mechanics of program operation and provides management with information which is valuable in organizing and operating an educational system. Product evaluation assesses program outcomes and contributes to forming a basis for decisions regarding the relative merits of competing programs.

A computerized information retrieval system is essential to the evaluation effort in those settings with large school populations. The total enrollment in the Dallas Independent School District is about 150,000 students, and the exceptional child enrollment is now about 7,000 students. District-wide implementation of Plan A will extend services to an additional 12,000 - 15,000 students. A computerized information system makes possible cross-sectional and longitudinal population studies to provide information quickly and efficiently. The information system also contributes greatly to the efficient evaluation of developmental programs within the total educational effort.

A discussion about the development and maintenance of an information system for exceptional children is beyond the scope and purpose of this paper. However, the following list will provide some indication of the kinds of data included in such a system.

> Demographic: name, address, date of birth, gender, ethnicity, parents' occupation, social economic status, parents' marital status, adult(s) caring for the child, number and gender of siblings.

Appraisal: reason(s) for referral, source(s) of referral, academic progress, observations, pertinent somatic characteristics, test scores, and medical examinations.

Educational: current and past schools attended, current and past teachers, types of instructional arrangements, and instructional materials.

The formal evaluation procedure involves the formulation and implementation of an evaluation design specifically suited for a given program. Identification of clearly defined program objectives is one of the most difficult tasks in the formulation of that evaluation design. Problems in defining objectives arise from educators' inexperience in constructing suitable objectives and from the frequent absence of information regarding optimal resource allocation and program operating procedures. In some cases, it may be advisable to specify objectives to suit specific student subpopulations. For example, one objective of Plan A in Dallas is to integrate exceptional children into the regular curriculum in order that no more than 50% of exceptional students spend more than 50% of the school day outside the regular classroom. However, it seems reasonable that the extent of exceptionality as well as the socioeconomic level of a school population should affect the percents specified in the objective. It may not be reasonable to expect all schools to attain the same objectives. At the present time, there is no known basis for determining the appropriate degree of "mainstreaming" exceptional children in the Dallas Independent School District.

The central focus of the evaluation design is the set of evaluation

questions which specify the information requested from the evaluation. The questions determine the overall character of the evaluation effort and greatly influence the consequent methodology. Management and evaluation personnel must work closely in the formulation of evaluation questions to ensure that the evaluation can meet the information needs of management.

A basic principle in evaluating developmental programs is to maximize process evaluation and to minimize product evaluation during the initial implementations of the program. The logic behind this principle is that it makes no sense to assess the effect of a program if the students do not receive the program. Accordingly, the evaluation questions specified in the Plan A design are primarily process evaluation questions. The following is a small sample of the Plan A process evaluation questions.

1. How many students were referred for services?
2. What were the sources of referrals?
3. How many people participated in staffings?
4. What were the kinds of decisions made at staffings, and what was the frequency of each kind?
5. What was the extent of participation in the regular educational curricula?

The Dallas Independent School District's experience in implementing Plan A has demonstrated the wisdom of emphasizing process evaluation during the initial implementation. Early in the school year, the evaluation showed that Plan A was not being implemented as specified, and management was alerted to initiate procedures to correct and to improve program implementation. Without process evaluation, the implementation of Plan A could have continued to falter, and product evaluation could have revealed no positive changes. Again, let us emphasize the importance of process

evaluation with developmental programs.

Following identification of program objectives and the formulation of evaluation questions, one must select or devise measurement strategies to collect the data solicited by the evaluation questions. Obtaining measurement strategies suitable to the wide range of variables associated with exceptional children is a major problem, which is especially critical in product evaluation where student changes are of interest. One objective of future research and evaluation plans in Dallas calls for identification of those tests and measurement strategies which are best suited to use the District with respect to psychometric standards, user efficiency, and cost-benefit factors. In part, plans specify studies:

1. to determine the relationships between ITPA scores, school achievement, and student demographic characteristics,
2. to discover the degree of transfer of remediation of deficits to the regular academic learning situations,
3. to develop a system of basic skills appraisal based on behavioral objectives and criterion-referenced measurement,
4. to determine the relationships among skills-based appraisal, school achievement, and student demographic characteristics,
5. to compare skills-based appraisal to deficiency-based appraisal relative to measurement efficiency, user acceptancy, and information provided.

Plan A is a good example of measurement problems associated with a program for exceptional children based on individualized instruction. In Plan A students possess a wide range of exceptional characteristics and learning problems, and the areas of remediation vary greatly. One feasible solution appears to be the individualization of product evaluation through the use of an individualized set of instructional objectives (expressed in behavioral terms, if desired) for each student. A measurement strategy can be specified for each instructional objective, and the percent of students who attained the objectives can be determined. The measurement strategies may include informal teacher observation, behavior frequency counts with comparisons against base-line performance, checklists, rating scales, informal appraisal devices, subtests from formal tests, and so forth. The criteria for selecting these measurement strategies appear to be validity relative to measurement of instructional objective attainment, reliability in terms of relatively error-free measurement, and user efficiency relative to teacher constraints.

After the selection of suitable measurement strategies, the measurement schedule and data collection procedures must be planned. The measurement schedule must specify the observation of both dependent and independent variables on the evaluation sample. The success of the measurement schedule in meeting the assumptions of inferential statistical theory directly determines the value of subsequent data analyses. The need to fit measurement schedules to fairly rigid educational settings reduces most evaluation studies to the level of quasi-experimentation, rather than true experimentation. Definitve answers to some evaluation questions relative to the efficacy of treatments may require more than one evaluation study.

The successful collection of data according to schedule requires the mobilization of staff and other necessary resources. It is important that staff who participate in any evaluation understand the motivation and rationale behind the evaluation activity. This is especially true when the evaluation places additional work loads on participating staff. The potential contribution of a computerized information system to the data collection process should be obvious.

Relative to data collection, one additional point merits discussion. It is important to cross-validate the collected data by means of on-site visitations and one-to-one discussions with program staff. The perceptions of reality gained in on-site visits do not always parallel the perceptions reflected in the official data, and such observations sometimes lead to revisions in the data collection process. Personal contact also can promote mutual trust and cooperation and minimize teacher apprehensions about the evaluation process.

Data analysis naturally must conform to accepted inferential statistical methodology to support certain conclusions. As noted previously, the measurement schedule directly influences the kinds and value of data analyses. A wealth of statistical texts exist, and there is no point to delineating standard analysis methodology in this paper. In the case of questionnaire data, the analysis of each item or small groups of similar items appears to be generally more useful to management than a total scale score analysis.

Without adequate reporting or evaluation outcomes, administrative decisions cannot reflect information gained from the evaluation. The complete written evaluation report should present information in response

to evaluation questions in both technical and non-technical language. Abridged reports and oral reports are very useful in communicating selected outcomes to subpopulations and in reporting to management on an interim basis. The immediacy and timeliness of information provided to management greatly determines the relative value of the evaluation effort.

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[1]Plan A

A Note on the "Future" of Special Education*

Maynard C. Reynolds

Someone has remarked that while all of our factual information concerns the past, our decisions affect only the future. In fast-changing times and in the education of children, which ought to be a progressive or future-oriented activity, it is particularly unfortunate if our data and analytic efforts are totally retrospective; or - as Professor Palmar Johnson used to say - if all of our studies are simply post mortem examinations.

The situation, of course, is not totally backward or morbid in perspective. Most human reflection - and certainly most systematic scholarship - is dedicated to creating human awarenesses which hopefully will enable us to predict but also to influence or create our futures. Recently a variety of scholars, called "futurists", have emerged who encourage us to turn our analytic skills directly and explicitly to the future - predicting or at least imaging alternative futures, examining their implications, and choosing a course with full awareness.

It seems to me that in orienting to the future, a realistic posture is one which is a combination of hard-headed predictions and of wishful thinking. This says that there are some inevitabilities,

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*This is an adapted version of a paper by the same title prepared by Maynard C. Reynolds and Offa Lou Jenkins for the CEC Project on Professional Standards and Guidelines.

some hard pushing forces, which had better be accepted; but also that there is some measure by which one can create his own future. In the 1940's Jerome Franck wrote a book entitled Fate and Freedom in which he spent about half of the space telling the half-truths about inevitability or fate concerning man and his institutions; the other half was spent in advancing the theory of man's freedom to create his own future. So it is - I think.

All of this too long introduction is to warn you that people who speak of the future, as in Franck's book, can at best only sketch a few glimpses of what is inevitable along with generous doses of wishes and personal biases. This is what I will be doing here this morning. I have felt bold enough to speak of the future only because I do have some futures-oriented data - which has come from many of you. Let me start with these few data and then I'll get to my own wishful thinking a bit later.

In mounting CEC's current Professional Standards and Guidelines Project there has been a special sensitivity to the challenge of conducting a "futures" oriented project. Professional Standards projects in all fields have earned a notoriously negative reputation for being conservative - if not retrogressive - in their influences. The charge is, usually, that by being consensus oriented and by involving mainly established people who are busily engaged at mid-career they tend to turn out results reflective of the decade past rather than of needs of the decade forward.

It was in this kind of context that it was decided to try to engage CEC members in an analysis of their future - as the basis for reformulating professional standards and guidelines. Two main strands of action have been started in this connection: first, an educational program concerning modern approaches in professional standards activities is now being directed to every CEC unit and every major special education agency in the nation; and secondly, a survey technique is being used which asks for future predictions and preferences, rather than simply for data on past performances. The data which I offer this morning are from a small first part of that survey.

In January, 1973, a brief questionnaire was sent to a variety of CEC members (including randomly selected teachers, teacher educators and CASE members) and to a limited set of people outside of CEC, including State Directors of Special Education and State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification. One part of the questionnaire asked respondents to indicate not more than five changes which they expected to occur in the field of special education in the next decade. I shall report to you now on results of these future predictions.

This first part of the questionnaire simply asked respondents to make certain future predictions in the field of special education. The exact language used was as follows:

> "List not more than five aspects of special education that will change most during the next ten years. Include the direction the change will take; i.e., increasing, decreasing, larger, smaller."

On this part of the survey, 201 respondents provided a total of about 800 predictions for changes in the next decade - by the cutoff date of February 16, 1973.

Several main categories of responses emerged quite clearly. These are listed below in the Table, along with indications - using telegraphic language - of the specific kinds of predictions included in each general category. It must be acknowledged that any system of categorization of responses to an "open" questionnaire is somewhat arbitrary. This is to say that other summarizers might have come up with different approaches; but I believe the main trends in responses to this questionnaire were largely unmistakable. It should also be mentioned that the questionnaire was sent out under a cover letter concerned with Professional Standards and Guidelines; thus there may have been a biasing effect toward certain kinds of issues.

It would be fair to conclude, I think, that respondents to this questionnaire see the next decade as preoccupied with topics already very much on the current scene: the administrative reorganization of special education with particular attention to interactions with regular education, the reformation of teacher education, extension of educational opportunities to severely handicapped persons - in community-based settings if possible, extension of instructional services to both the very young and to older handicapped persons, better curriculums and more specific methods of instruction, tougher accountability standards and wider use of differentiated staffing arrangements.

Table 1

Major Categories of Changes in Special Education

Predicted for Next Decade

Response Categories	N
Changing Administrative Arrangements	217
More mainstreaming.... fewer self contained special classes.... more resource rooms.... decreasing number of classes for the mildly handicapped.... decategorization.... delabeling.... more supportive roles for special educators.... more individualization of instruction for all.... demise of the medical model.... more organization around learning problems and needs	
Reformation of Teacher Education	204
More performance or competency-based orientation.... more field-based.... decategorization trend.... more continuing education.... more directed to regular teachers.... more use of modern technology.... higher standards on everything.... new roles, especially emphasizing diagnostic and consulting functions	
New Programs for Children With Severe Handicapping Conditions	80
Court imperatives on including <u>all</u> children in education.... deinstitutionalization.... more community based programs.... institutions for only profoundly handicapped.... due process on all exclusions.... more decentralization of programs	
Age Extension	67
More early childhood programs.... expanding infant and parent educational programs.... more preventive programs.... expanded secondary and vocational school programs.... more adult education for the handicapped	

Table 1 (Continued)

Response Categories	N
Improved Curriculum, Diagnosis-Prescriptive, Teaching Methods	34
Better diagnosis.... specific diagnosis and prescriptive procedures.... more humanistic orientation.... more behavioristic orientation.... precision teaching.... more "learning problems" orientation	
Accountability	29
More explicit setting of goals and objectives in all programs.... more emphasis on meaningful measurement.... demands for cost data.... more pressures for plans and accounting	
More Use of Paraprofessionals	25
More differentiated staffing.... more use of volunteers.... more technicians	

It may be noteworthy that so little attention was given in this "open" questionnaire to quantitative changes, which have so characterized past decades in special education. Instead, the attention of these respondents went mainly to items of reform and improvement. It is also noteworthy that few respondents said anything about certain topics, such as the gifted, research, governmental roles, accreditation, certification, professional organizations, private schools, voucher systems, etc.. Those who are interested in these topics apparently have much work to do to bring concerns up to threshold among special educators.

For a moment, I would like now to comment from a more personal perspective. I believe the field of special education is already into an extremely difficult period of transition; the main elements of that transition apparently are widely perceived because they are in the data I've just reviewed for you and which, in effect, come from you. They are:

1. Reorganization of the administrative arrangements for special education, with emphasis upon building capacity in the mainstream of education to accomodate human differences. This means that special education personnel, in large numbers, will come out of their special classes and go into support roles with regular educators; it means that a lot of work is to be done to develop productive new modes of interchange among special education and regular education personnel at all levels - in the schools, in system administrative arrangements, in regional, state and federal offices concerned with special

education and in colleges and universities.

2. The transition will require many, if not all of us, to seek for ourselves a new surge of personal development - through personal efforts in our jobs seeking new insights and strengths, through self-directed study and through re-training programs. It is noteworthy that the second most frequent category of responses to the open questionnaire was in this domain.

3. It seems clear that the wave-like process by which we've encompassed educable, then "trainable" children in community-based school programs is at an end - and there we must, indeed, follow the court directives to include them all - even the most profoundly handicapped. So, we have in our futures the development of many new programs for severely handicapped children. I believe we have come to this only, or at least in part, because we in the profession of special education have said that all children are educable in ways that are important at least in their lives.

More could be said, of course, of some things perfectly predictable in our futures such as more accountability for our performances, more "open" or public kinds of teaching, more involvement of parents in educational planning, better vocational programs and more early childhood education. Taken all together these many changes amount to a radical transformation of our field.

Let me mention two areas of concern as we look to the future. These are: money and leadership.

One clear fact of the present is that more of the goading force for change is coming from courts than from legislatures; and courts give directives but no money. Already, special educators who in recent decades have led a relatively lush existence with all of their special aids are having to face their school boards with court directives for new projects but with empty pockets. At our University we've recently gone through a draining "R & R" process - "R & R" stands not for Rest and Recreation but for Retrenchment and Reallocation. Many of us probably have a good bit of "R & R" in our futures. But we must try also to renew and harden our efforts for adequate funding of special education programs.

A second aspect of the finance or money problem which worries me greatly is the apparent trend in some places to meet public obligations for special education by sending difficult children off to private schools with a bag of money. Sometimes, the state pays only part of the cost so that parents must pay the balancing amounts up to full cost; obviously only the affluent can enter such private school channels. Some data showing clearly the extent to which these operations benefit racial groups differently are potentially devastating in effects. I believe special educators should declare and define themselves out of these unjustified arrangements, while at the same time working toward defensible means of private-public cooperation in service to exceptional children.

My second topic for worry as we look to the future is leadership. I believe that many special educators in leadership roles are overly occupied with urgent daily problems and under-supported, so much so that it is going to be very difficult for them to generate needed new plans and resources and all of the supporting program elements so necessary in a period of rapid change. There is not time to elaborate on this topic, but let me say quickly that I think we are challenged to find new means of sharing resources of all kinds - through technical assistance agencies, improved dissemination systems and through strengthened services of professional organizations such as CEC.

Finally, let me say that I believe special education has been a progressively inclusionary force for exceptional children, building places for them in the schools. What we have before us is an opportunity to extend that process. But what is required now is not only that we move to include the most severely handicapped, but that we open, negotiate and restructure our relationship with regular education. Where the best transformational projects are already underway, observers are saying very nice things about what special educators seem to be able to deliver in the new framework. This portends quite an agreeable and worthwhile future for those who restir their energies and join the efforts.

In her summary comments concerning the Darwin Centennial of a decade ago, Anne Roe focussed on human awareness as the key concept in the new evolution - which is to say that what emerges for us in the future need not be just a blind, inevitable, crudely organic thing. It can reflect things of the spirit and intellect. I believe special educators are fortunate to have before them an admittedly difficult period of work, but one which they can join with genuine integrity and worthy spirit.